

# SIMULTANEOUS CONTROL OF UNBURNED NH<sub>3</sub> AND NO<sub>x</sub> EMISSIONS FROM HIGH LOAD DUAL-FUEL AMMONIA OPERATION ON A HIGH-SPEED DIESEL ENGINE USING A CU-SCR SYSTEM

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## ABSTRACT

*Dual-fuel ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>) strategies are being investigated as a promising way to utilize NH<sub>3</sub> as an alternative fuel for internal combustion engines in the maritime sector. One of the remaining barriers to implementing dual-fuel NH<sub>3</sub> combustion strategies is understanding ways to minimize unburned NH<sub>3</sub> and nitrogen oxide (NO<sub>x</sub>) emissions from these engines, both of which are elevated relative to a conventional diesel baseline. Selective catalytic reduction (SCR) systems are widely used for lean NO<sub>x</sub> emissions controls for engines across transportation and stationary energy applications. SCR systems use a reducing agent, such as NH<sub>3</sub>, to react with NO<sub>x</sub> in the exhaust, converting it into nitrogen and water. Typically, NH<sub>3</sub> is injected into the exhaust as a urea solution. In dual-fuel NH<sub>3</sub> engines, where unburned NH<sub>3</sub> is present in the exhaust, an SCR system could be used to mitigate both NH<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> emissions. The presented work evaluates a commercial copper-zeolite SCR and ammonia slip catalyst system, designed for on-road diesel engine applications, for controlling unburned NH<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> emissions from a dual-fuel NH<sub>3</sub> combustion engine. The aftertreatment system was installed downstream of a single-cylinder four-stroke diesel engine that has been modified for dual-fuel ammonia use. The emissions were characterized by using a Fourier transform infrared spectrometer for both late- and early-injection diesel pilot strategies over three air-fuel equivalence ratios spanning from 1.6 to 1.0 at 1,200 rpm and 12.6 bar IMEP<sub>g</sub> condition (with greater than 95% ammonia energy fraction). Initial findings indicate that the SCR achieves more than 99% NO<sub>x</sub> conversion with less than 50 ppm NH<sub>3</sub> slip at air-fuel equivalence ratios greater than 1.4 at the operating conditions investigated. However, these benefits are accompanied by additional N<sub>2</sub>O emissions that are formed over the Cu-SCR.*

*Keywords: Ammonia, SCR, Dual-Fuel, Emissions*

## 1. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, increasing attention has been focused on reducing emissions from the marine transportation sector. Shipping energy use—and thus emissions—is projected to increase by 50%–250% between now and 2050, subject to economic conditions [1]. Based on these estimates, the International Maritime Organization has set aggressive emissions reduction targets, including cutting CO<sub>2</sub>-equivalent emissions from ships by 70%–80% from 2008 levels by 2040 [1,2]. Because shipping is a sector with long distance and high weight requirements, it will continue to require high-energy-density liquid fuels.

Ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>) serves as an alternative fuel option for maritime applications to power inland and coastal marine engines, as well as freighters and tankers. It is an alkaline colorless compound with a pungent odor that serves as a hydrogen carrier. Its relatively low storage pressure (0.99 MPa vs. 69 MPa for compressed H<sub>2</sub>) makes it economical for long-distance transportation [3]. Furthermore, its prevalent use in the agricultural sector provides readily available port infrastructure and safe handling procedures. Ammonia can be produced through electrochemical, thermochemical, and photochemical means, with the thermochemical (Haber-Bosch process) method accounting for more than 80% of total production today [4,5].

Ammonia's use as a fuel, however, comes with a unique set of challenges. The Occupational Safety and Health Administration's exposure limit for NH<sub>3</sub> is less than 50 ppm over a span of 8 h, which makes its toxicity a significant concern; the "immediately dangerous to life and health" threshold is 300 ppm [6]. Its low cetane number makes using it as a fuel for compression ignition (CI) applications difficult, whereas its low flame speed and high-ignition energy requirements make its

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69 combustion challenging in a spark-ignited (SI) scenario [7]. 125  
70 These issues raise combustion management concerns with NH<sub>3</sub> 126  
71 because its incomplete combustion produces oxides of nitrogen 127  
72 such as NO<sub>x</sub> (NO + NO<sub>2</sub>) and N<sub>2</sub>O (which has a CO<sub>2</sub>-equivalent 128  
73 emissions multiplier of 273 over a span of 100 years [8]). High 129  
74 engine-out unburned NH<sub>3</sub> emissions are also an issue that 130  
75 requires additional attention when using NH<sub>3</sub> as a fuel [9, 10]. 131  
76 The copresence of NH<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> in exhaust presents an 132  
77 opportunity to utilize existing selective catalytic reduction (SCR) 133  
78 and ammonia slip catalysts (ASC), which are commonly used in 134  
79 both stationary and mobile diesel aftertreatment applications, to 135  
80 simultaneously control both emissions. Traditional SCR systems 136  
81 use urea as a reducing agent for NO reduction [11]. However, an 137  
82 engine fueled directly with NH<sub>3</sub> provides a direct source of NH<sub>3</sub> 138  
83 for the SCR catalyst. More importantly, the presence of unburned 139  
84 NH<sub>3</sub> in the exhaust could aid in reducing NO<sub>x</sub> over a catalyst, 140  
85 potentially eliminating the need for a dosing system in the 141  
86 exhaust. An ASC system placed downstream of the SCR can be 142  
87 used for minimizing NH<sub>3</sub> slip. 143

88 144  
89 Different catalyst technologies have been identified in the 145  
90 literature for NO<sub>x</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O abatement when using NH<sub>3</sub> as a fuel. 146  
91 For example, iron-based catalysts have been shown to 147  
92 simultaneously reduce NO<sub>x</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O to N<sub>2</sub> using NH<sub>3</sub> [12, 13]. 148  
93 Voniata *et al.* [14] have evaluated the performance of both iron- 149  
94 and vanadium-based catalysts on a synthetic gas bench in 150  
95 simulated NH<sub>3</sub> engine exhaust. Their results indicated a 70%– 151  
96 90% reduction in CO<sub>2</sub>-equivalent emissions compared with the 152  
97 emissions of conventional diesel operation for NH<sub>3</sub>-to-NO<sub>x</sub> ratio 153  
98 (ANR) less than one, whereas the cases with ANR greater than 154  
99 one exhibited a sevenfold CO<sub>2</sub>-equivalent penalty, driven by 155  
100 high N<sub>2</sub>O formation over the catalysts. Oh *et al.* [15] studied a 156  
101 conventional SCR system coupled with an ASC (no details on 157  
102 catalyst type were provided) for a spark-ignited ammonia/natural 158  
103 gas dual-fuel engine. A sweep of excess air ratio ( $1 < \lambda < 1.6$ ) at 159  
104 various NH<sub>3</sub> energy fractions (0%–50%) resulted in under 160  
105 10 ppm of NH<sub>3</sub> emissions downstream of their aftertreatment 161  
106 system. The authors also noted a small reduction in N<sub>2</sub>O 162  
107 emissions downstream of the catalyst (N<sub>2</sub>O < 40 ppm) but 163  
108 observed an unintended increase in NO<sub>2</sub> emissions (NO<sub>2</sub> < 200 164  
109 ppm). 165

110 166  
111 On a dual-fuel engine operated with diesel and NH<sub>3</sub>, Kuta *et al.* 167  
112 *al.* [16] implemented a V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>/SiO<sub>2</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub> SCR system. With the  
113 engine operating at mid- and high-load conditions between 40%  
114 and 60% NH<sub>3</sub> energy fraction, they reported NO and NO<sub>2</sub>  
115 conversion efficiencies greater than 80% and 60%, respectively.  
116 Only 5%–20% of residual ammonia was consumed during the  
117 NO<sub>x</sub> reduction process, with more than 1.5% remaining  
118 untreated downstream of the SCR setup. Copper-zeolite SCR  
119 catalysts have also been studied due to their high hydrothermal  
120 stability along with the capability to adsorb/store ammonia at  
121 certain temperatures [17]. Xiang *et al.* [18] evaluated a Pt/Pd  
122 diesel oxidation catalyst (DOC) coupled with a Cu-ZSM-5 SCR  
123 on a CI engine operating on diesel and ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub> energy  
124 fraction: 0%–40%). The upstream placement of the DOC led to

greater than 90% NH<sub>3</sub> conversion efficiency; however, the majority of the converted NH<sub>3</sub> formed N<sub>2</sub>O. This problem worsened at higher NH<sub>3</sub> energy fractions as N<sub>2</sub>O emissions increased from about 500 ppm at 10% to about 1,500 ppm under 75% load conditions. This ultimately resulted in poor NO<sub>x</sub> conversion over the SCR as the ANR plunged below 1. The SCR's N<sub>2</sub>O conversion efficiency was also suboptimal across the tested conditions. Similar observations were made by Sun *et al.* [19] from their 1D Cu-Zeolite SCR model coupled with a 3D diesel/NH<sub>3</sub> dual-fuel engine model.

In this work, a single-cylinder version of a Cummins ISB 6.7 L engine was used to perform dual-fuel NH<sub>3</sub> experiments at high-load and high diesel substitution (NH<sub>3</sub> energy fraction of about 95%) to generate a range of inlet conditions for a commercially available SCR-ASC aftertreatment system for on-road applications. The use of early- and late-pilot diesel pilot injection strategies (denoted as E-pilot and L-pilot, respectively) and a sweep of  $\lambda$  provide a wide range of ANR conditions for aftertreatment evaluation without a dosing system. Operation at 95% NH<sub>3</sub> energy fraction also allows for assessing the influence of excessively high water concentrations in the exhaust on aftertreatment performance.

## 2. METHODS

### 2.1 Engine Hardware and Fuels

The engine used for this study was a single-cylinder version of a Cummins 6.7 L ISB diesel engine. The combustion geometry was unmodified from the stock configuration. The stock diesel fuel system was retained and comprises a high-pressure common-rail direct-injection pump and a CRIN-3 eight-hole injector with a 145° included angle and a nominal diameter of 140  $\mu$ m. Renewable diesel fuel sourced from Chevron Renewable Energy Group was used as the pilot fuel. The premixed chemical grade anhydrous NH<sub>3</sub> (Airgas) was drawn using a liquid dip tube and vaporized using a heat exchanger (heated above 55°C using hot engine-out coolant) before being measured (Emerson Micro Motion Coriolis flowmeter) and injected (two Clean Air Power DigiJet NH3ICE SP-010 injectors) 35 cm upstream of the intake port in a y-section to allow for mixing with intake air. The supply lines and flowmeter were insulated with heat tape to prevent NH<sub>3</sub> from condensing in the fuel system. The supply of the premixed NH<sub>3</sub> was interlocked

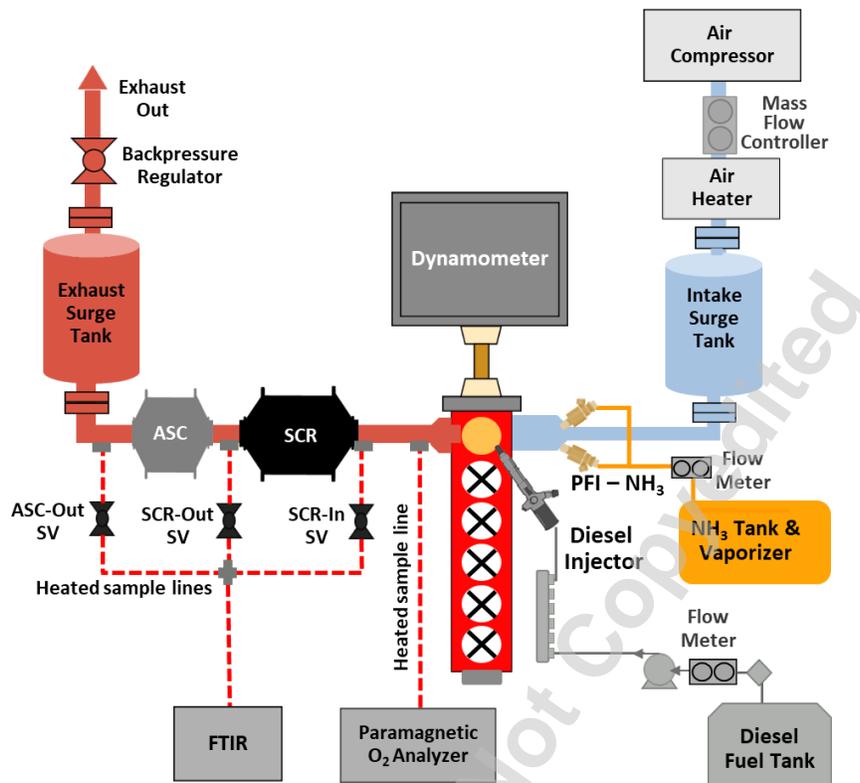


FIGURE 1: TEST SETUP SCHEMATIC.

168 with cell ventilation and gas monitors to ensure operator safety. 183  
 169 The compressed air for the intake charge was conditioned using 184  
 170 a series of air dryers and particulate filters. The temperature of 185  
 171 the intake charge was controlled using a 6 kW heater, and the 186  
 172 intake air mass flow rate was controlled using an Alicat 187  
 173 Scientific mass flow controller. The engine was controlled using 188  
 174 an open LabVIEW-based engine control system. The engine 189  
 175 specifications are shown in Table 1, and the fuel properties are 190  
 176 in Table 2. Refer to Curran et al. [20] for additional details on 191  
 177 the test setup. The engine schematic is shown in Figure 1 for 192  
 178 reference. 193

180 TABLE 1: ENGINE SPECIFICATIONS.

Connecting Rod Length	145.4 mm
Bore × Stroke	107 × 124 mm
Displacement (1-cylinder)	1.12 L
Compression Ratio	20:1
Direct Injection System	On-engine high-pressure common-rail pump
Port Injection System	NH <sub>3</sub> cylinder/vaporizer

181  
182 TABLE 2: FUEL PROPERTIES (1 BAR AND 20°C).

Fuel	Cetane Number	Density [kg/m <sup>3</sup> ]	LHV [MJ/kg]
Renewable Diesel	84.9	786	43.8
NH <sub>3</sub>	~0	609	18.8

## 2.2 Engine Operating Conditions

The inlet conditions for the aftertreatment setup were generated from renewable diesel/NH<sub>3</sub> experiments conducted at an engine speed of 1,200 rpm and load of ~12.6 bar IMEP<sub>net</sub>. Two injection strategies, E-pilot and L-pilot (shown in Figure 2), were implemented by varying the diesel start of injection (SOI) timing at a fixed global air-fuel equivalence ratio or  $\lambda$ . Renewable diesel was used as the pilot because its high cetane number allowed for a wider range of operability, especially for the E-pilot cases, in which combustion stability typically worsens at richer conditions. The  $\lambda$  for each mode was varied from about 1.6 (diesel-like) to a value of 1.0 by varying the commanded airflow (varying P<sub>Intake</sub>) to the engine while maintaining an NH<sub>3</sub> energy fraction of ~95% (~5% diesel energy share). These sweeps were mainly motivated by potential improvements in dual-fuel NH<sub>3</sub> combustion performance at 198

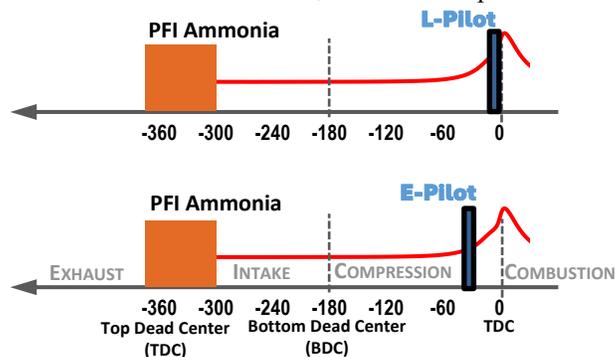


FIGURE 2: DIESEL PILOT INJECTION STRATEGIES EMPLOYED IN THE STUDY.

199 richer in-cylinder conditions [10]. Conventional diesel 245  
 200 combustion (CDC) operation with a pilot + main injection at 246  
 201 baseline manifold air pressure settings was used to provide a 247  
 202 benchmark against which the two injection strategies could be 248  
 203 evaluated. 249

204 Other operating condition details are as follows: intake 250  
 205 temperature of 60°C; oil and coolant temperatures of 95°C; 251  
 206  $P_{\text{Intake}} - P_{\text{Exhaust}}$  of ~15 kPa; and start of injection for NH<sub>3</sub> at 252  
 207 320°bTDC. The design of experiments is shown in Table 3. A 253  
 208 total of 500 engine cycles were acquired for each point, and 254  
 209 the low-speed data were collected simultaneously. 255

210 **TABLE 3: DESIGN OF EXPERIMENTS.** 256

Mode	$\lambda$ [-]	Pilot SOI [°bTDC]
L-pilot	1.0	3/6/9/12
	1.4	
	1.6	
E-pilot	1.0	27.5/30.5/33.5
	1.4	33.5/36.5/38.5
	1.6	30.5/33.5/36.5/38.5

### 211 2.3 Catalyst Setup and Sampling 267

#### 212 Methodology 268

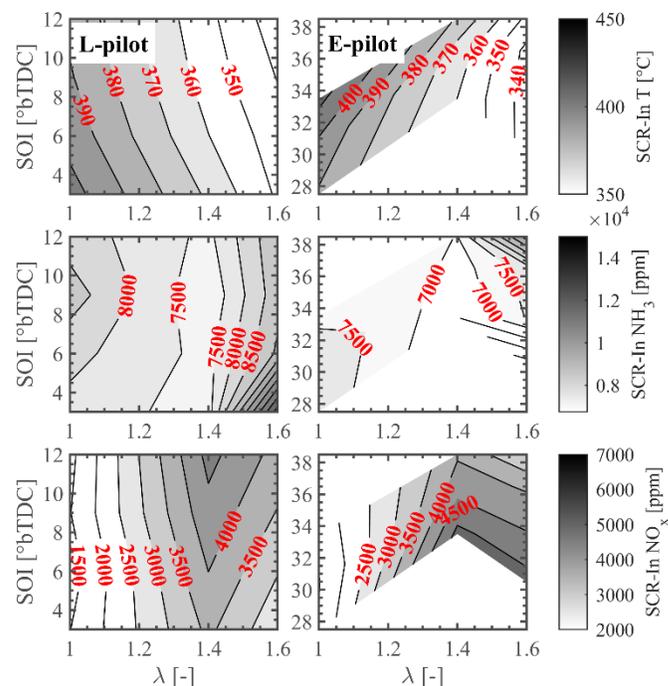
213  
 214 As shown in Figure 1, a commercial SCR and an ASC 269  
 215 system were installed upstream of the exhaust surge tank. Both 270  
 216 the catalysts, supplied by Umicore, were commercially available 271  
 217 formulations designed specifically for on-road diesel 272  
 218 applications. The employed SCR catalyst was a high-  
 219 performance, low-temperature formulation based on copper-  
 220 exchanged zeolite. It had a cell density of 400 cells per square  
 221 inch (cps) and a washcoat loading of 200 g/L. Two monolithic  
 222 SCR catalyst bricks, each measuring 14.4 cm in diameter and  
 223 12.7 cm in length, were housed in series within a stainless-steel  
 224 canister. The combined volume of the SCR catalyst was 4.12 L.  
 225 Positioned immediately downstream of the SCR unit was a 14.4  
 226 cm (diameter) × 5.1 cm (length) ASC catalyst. This monolith,  
 227 with a total volume of 0.82 L and a cell density of 400 cps,  
 228 utilized a precious metal Pt-based formulation with a platinum  
 229 loading of 10 g/ft<sup>3</sup>.

230  
 231 Both the SCR and ASC were instrumented with K-type 232  
 233 thermocouples (Omega) to measure temperatures at the inlets 234  
 234 and outlets. Three sampling probes were installed upstream of 235  
 235 the SCR (SCR-In), downstream of the SCR (SCR-Out), and 236  
 236 downstream of the ASC (ASC-Out) for emissions sampling 237  
 237 using a high-speed MKS Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) 238  
 238 spectrometer (MKS MultiGas 2030 FTIR Gas Analyzer). The 239  
 239 sampling locations were selected using a series of valves 240  
 240 installed at each sampling probe. The FTIR analytical method 241  
 241 enabled the measurement of relevant nitrogen-based (N-based) 242  
 242 species, such as NH<sub>3</sub>, NO, NO<sub>2</sub>, and N<sub>2</sub>O. The method was 243  
 243 specifically developed to handle high levels of NH<sub>3</sub> in the 244  
 244 exhaust. The sample lines were heat-traced to avoid  
 245 condensation of water during sampling. A California Analytical

Instruments paramagnetic O<sub>2</sub> analyzer was used to measure the  
 engine-out oxygen concentration. The sampling methodology  
 was as follows:

1. Steady-state engine operation was ensured at a  $\lambda$  of 1.6 and fixed pilot SOI timing using aftertreatment temperatures as an indicator.
2. The SCR-In sampling valve (SV) was first opened to collect engine-out emissions data for 500 engine cycles or ~50 seconds (SCR-Out SV and ASC-Out SV remain closed).
3. Next, the SCR-Out SV was opened and SCR-In SV closed to collect emissions data downstream of the SCR for 500 engine cycles.
4. Finally, the ASC-Out SV was opened and SCR-Out SV closed to collect emissions data downstream of the ASC for 500 engine cycles.
5. The pilot SOI timing was adjusted at the same  $\lambda$ , and steps 1–4 were repeated. The order of  $\lambda$  collection for a given injection mode was as follows: 1.6 → 1.4 → 1.0.

A leak was discovered in the SCR-Out sample line to the FTIR after data had been collected, resulting in dilution of the sample at  $\lambda = 1$  conditions, where the pressure of the exhaust sample was not significantly higher than ambient pressure. A dilution ratio calculated based on the CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations at the SCR-In and SCR-Out locations was used to correct the FTIR emissions measurements at the SCR-Out location for the  $\lambda = 1$  case.



**FIGURE 3: SCR-IN TEMPERATURE (TOP), NH<sub>3</sub> (MIDDLE) AND NO<sub>x</sub> (BOTTOM) AS A FUNCTION OF DIESEL PILOT SOI AND  $\lambda$ . THE L-PILOT CASES ARE SHOWN ON THE LEFT, AND E-PILOT CASES ARE SHOWN ON THE RIGHT.**

### 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### 3.1 SCR Inlet Conditions

##### 3.1.1 NO<sub>x</sub>, NH<sub>3</sub>, and Exhaust Temperature

The inlet conditions generated for the SCR with both the L-pilot and E-pilot cases are shown in Figure 3 as a function of diesel pilot SOI and  $\lambda$ . First, it is evident that the sensitivity to  $\lambda$  is more pronounced for the temperature, NH<sub>3</sub>, and NO<sub>x</sub> (NO<sub>2</sub> < 324 30 ppm) at the SCR inlet. This is true regardless of the injection strategy being considered. The temperature ranges from about 340°C at a  $\lambda$  of 1.6 to about 400°C at a  $\lambda$  of 1.0 for both the L-pilot and E-pilot cases ( $\Delta T$  between exhaust port and SCR-In varies from 50°C at  $\lambda$  of 1.6 to 100°C at  $\lambda$  of 1.0). The increase in temperature at a lower  $\lambda$  is driven by thermal efficiency in both instances. The unburned NH<sub>3</sub> generated from the in-cylinder combustion process exceeded the NO<sub>x</sub> at any given  $\lambda$  value. In general, for both the L-pilot and E-pilot cases, a minimum in NH<sub>3</sub> was accompanied by a maximum in NO<sub>x</sub> at a  $\lambda$  of 1.4. This inverse relationship suggests that the majority of the NO<sub>x</sub> generated for these cases is fuel-borne and can be thought of as an incomplete combustion product of the premixed NH<sub>3</sub> [10]. At  $\lambda$  values less than 1.4, the inverse relationship falls apart, potentially indicating more complete conversion of the NH<sub>3</sub> that does burn. The E-pilot strategy generally also results in lower unburned NH<sub>3</sub> than that of the L-pilot, possibly influenced by the increased spatial availability of the high-reactivity fuel resulting in better consumption of the surrounding premixed NH<sub>3</sub> [10]. The space velocity, which affects the catalyst performance, does not change significantly as a function of  $\lambda$ :  $\sim 1.9E04$  h<sup>-1</sup> (SCR) and  $\sim 9.5E05$  h<sup>-1</sup> (ASC).

##### 3.1.2 H<sub>2</sub>O Concentration

The concentration of water in the exhaust is significantly higher for the dual-fuel cases than for conventional diesel-only operation ( $\sim 9\%$ ), as shown in Figure 4. This is due to the high H content of the premixed fuel, which, when completely consumed, forms water in-cylinder. Such high concentrations of water in the exhaust can pose challenges for SCR, hindering NO<sub>x</sub> conversion efficiency and increasing N<sub>2</sub>O formation, especially at lower exhaust temperatures typical of low load operation [21, 22]. Under the exhaust temperature conditions evaluated in this study, the high-water effects on NO<sub>x</sub> conversion performance may not play as important of a role.

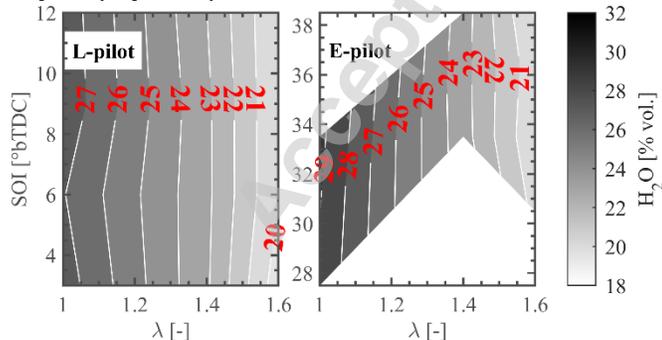


FIGURE 4: EXHAUST H<sub>2</sub>O CONCENTRATION: L-PILOT (LEFT) AND E-PILOT (RIGHT).

##### 3.1.3 Thermal Efficiency

Figure 5 shows the resulting thermal efficiency penalty for the dual-fuel cases relative to the baseline CDC case. For both the L-pilot and E-pilot cases, the thermal efficiency is similar to that of the CDC case at a  $\lambda$  of 1.4, but leaner or richer operation results in considerable penalty. Hence, optimal SCR performance at a  $\lambda$  of 1.4 would be desirable when considering factors such as thermal efficiency.

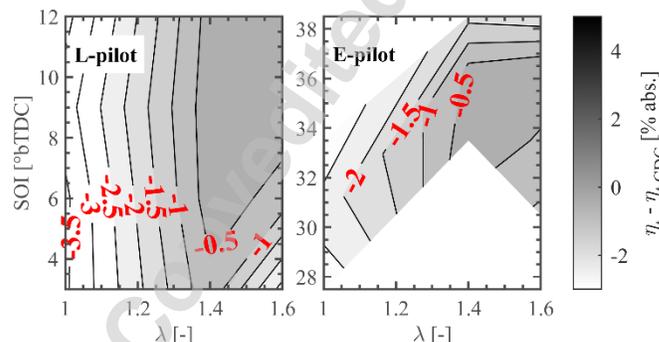


FIGURE 5: THERMAL EFFICIENCY PENALTY RELATIVE TO CDC BASELINE TO GENERATE THE INLET CONDITIONS FOR THE AFTERTREATMENT SETUP USING DUAL-FUEL NH<sub>3</sub> COMBUSTION: L-PILOT (LEFT) AND E-PILOT (RIGHT).

#### 3.2 SCR Performance

##### 3.2.1 NO<sub>x</sub> Conversion

As shown in Figure 6, the NO<sub>x</sub> conversion over the Cu-SCR exceeds 99% over the explored conditions for both the L-pilot and E-pilot strategies, despite greater than 20% water concentration in the exhaust (note the ANR exceeds a value of 1 under all conditions). Existing studies have explored the effect of water on Cu-SCR performance [23, 24, 25, 26]; however, to the best of the authors' knowledge, such high concentrations of water (due to greater than 90% substitution levels) have not been considered in the literature for a nontraditional fuel like ammonia. Work by Wan *et al.* [23], however, suggests that the presence of water can play a permanent positive role by allowing the migration of unanchored Cu ions to defect sites to form active sites for NO<sub>x</sub> reduction. The presence of water at high temperatures can also decrease the reaction energy barrier of reoxidation of Cu<sup>+</sup> to Cu<sup>2+</sup>, facilitating NO<sub>x</sub> conversion over the Cu-SCR [25].

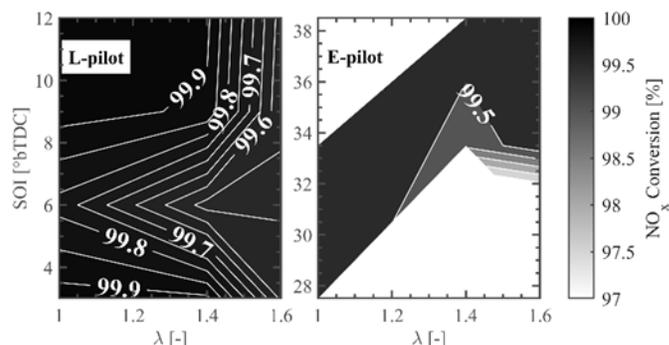
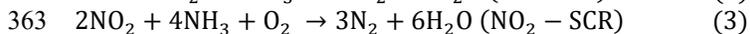
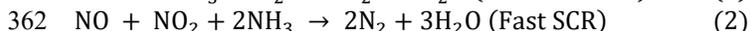
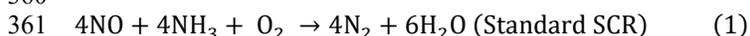


FIGURE 6: NO<sub>x</sub> CONVERSION EFFICIENCY OF THE SCR SYSTEM: L-PILOT (LEFT) AND E-PILOT (RIGHT).

Owing to similar SCR inlet conditions,  $\text{NO}_x$  conversion, and SOI insensitivity for the L-pilot and E-pilot strategies, only the L-pilot results at a  $12^\circ\text{BTDC}$  SOI timing will be presented in the following sections for brevity.

The global reactions mainly responsible for  $\text{NO}_x$  reduction are as follows [27]:



It was noted earlier that the  $\text{NO}_2$  concentrations are below 30 ppm across the explored space ( $\text{NO}_x \approx \text{NO}$ ). This suggests that reaction (1) is the dominant mode for  $\text{NO}$  reduction over the SCR. The standard SCR reaction utilizes an equimolar concentration of  $\text{NH}_3$  and  $\text{NO}_x$  ( $\text{ANR} = 1$ ). Hence, a condition with  $\text{ANR} < 1$  would result in insufficient  $\text{NH}_3$  availability for complete  $\text{NO}$  conversion ( $\text{NO}$  slip), whereas  $\text{ANR} > 1$  indicates excess  $\text{NH}_3$  availability, potentially leading to  $\text{NH}_3$  slip.

A sample set of  $\text{NH}_3$ ,  $\text{NO}_x$ , and  $\text{ANR}$  values is shown in Figure 7 for the L-pilot strategy as a function of  $\lambda$ . The  $\text{ANR}$  approaches an ideal value of 1 as  $\lambda$  is decreased from 1.6 to 1.4, with a further decrease causing significant deviation from ideal stoichiometry. The deviation is caused by a reduction in fuel-borne  $\text{NO}$  because of high unburned  $\text{NH}_3$ . Note that the SCR-inlet temperature ranges from  $334^\circ\text{C}$  at  $\lambda$  of 1.6 to  $387^\circ\text{C}$  at  $\lambda$  of 1.0 for the cases shown in Figure 7. Within this temperature and space velocity range and at  $\text{ANR} > 1$ , high  $\text{NO}_x$  conversion was achieved, with  $\text{NO}_x$  concentrations not exceeding 10 ppm at the SCR outlet (Figure 6).

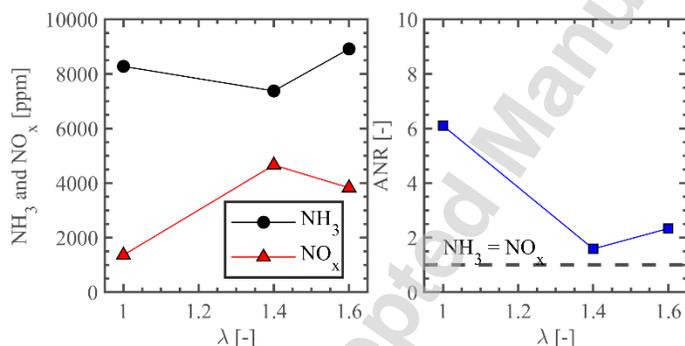


FIGURE 7: SCR-IN  $\text{NH}_3$  AND  $\text{NO}_x$  VALUES (LEFT) AND  $\text{ANR}$  (RIGHT) AS A FUNCTION OF  $\lambda$  FOR THE L-PILOT CASE WITH SOI OF  $12^\circ\text{BTDC}$ .

### 3.2.2 $\text{NH}_3$ Slip and $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ Penalty

As expected from the aforementioned discussion, the  $\text{NH}_3$  slip results shown in Figure 8 (top) mirror the trend in  $\text{ANR}$  as a function of  $\lambda$ . However, the concentration of  $\text{NH}_3$  required to satisfy a reaction (1) would result in a higher than observed  $\text{NH}_3$  slip, as seen in Figure 8 (top). This can be attributed to the competitive, nonselective reactions of  $\text{NH}_3$  with  $\text{O}_2$ , primarily occurring through reactions (4) and (5). The majority of the  $\text{NH}_3$  consumption results from oxidation to  $\text{N}_2$  at elevated

temperatures [28, 29, 30, 31, 32]. The observed partial oxidation to  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  is undesirable because it increases the  $\text{CO}_2$ -equivalent penalty.

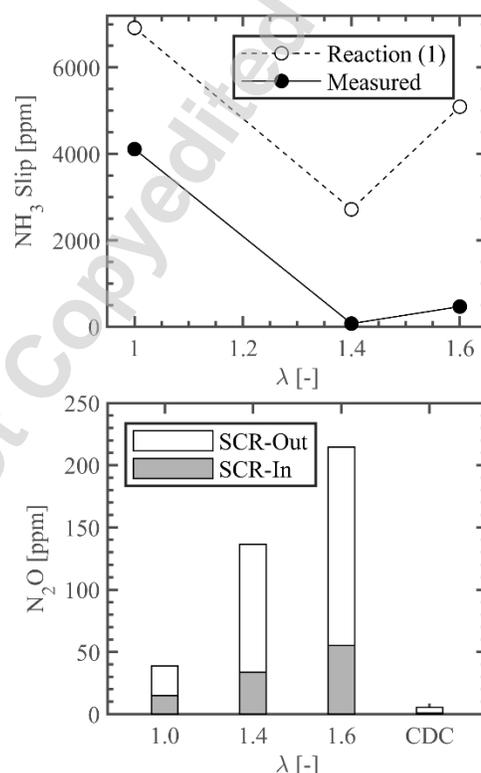


FIGURE 8:  $\text{NH}_3$  SLIP THROUGH THE SCR (TOP) AND SCR-IN/SCR-OUT  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  (BOTTOM) FOR THE L-PILOT CASE WITH SOI OF  $12^\circ\text{BTDC}$ . THE CDC SCR-IN/SCR-OUT  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  RESULTS ARE SHOWN FOR REFERENCE IN THE BOTTOM PLOT.

These reactions may occur alongside the standard SCR reaction, consuming  $\text{NH}_3$  without  $\text{NO}_x$  reduction, especially at higher temperatures (Figure 8 [bottom]) [28]. The selectivity to  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  decreases at richer conditions as the concentration of  $\text{O}_2$  available for reaction (4) is reduced. The SCR-Out  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions exceeded the CDC baseline value across all  $\lambda$  cases. Note that the CDC results were not generated by dosing the SCR with  $\text{NH}_3$  and should be interpreted with caution (qualitative reference for the dual-fuel aftertreatment performance).

### 3.3 ASC Inlet Conditions

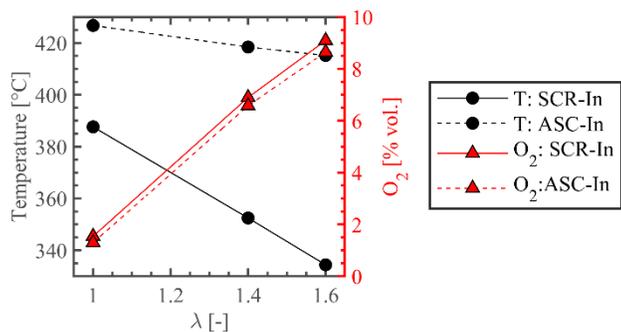
The inlet conditions generated for the ASC rely on the performance of the SCR placed upstream of it and differ considerably, as shown in Figure 9. Because  $\text{O}_2$  measurements were unavailable at the ASC inlet, the concentrations were estimated based on reactions (1), (4), and (5), as shown:

$$[\text{O}_2]_{\text{ASC-In}} \approx [\text{O}_2]_{\text{SCR-In}} - [\text{O}_2]_{\text{Rxn (1)}} - [\text{O}_2]_{\text{Rxn (4)}} - [\text{O}_2]_{\text{Rxn (5)}}$$

$$[O_2]_{Rxn(1)} = \frac{[NO]_{SCR-In}}{4}$$

$$[O_2]_{Rxn(4)} = 2 \cdot ([N_2O]_{ASC-In} - [N_2O]_{SCR-In})$$

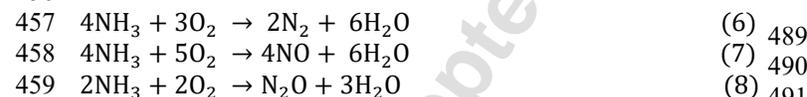
$$= \frac{3 \cdot ([NH_3]_{SCR-In} - [NH_3]_{ASC-In} - [NH_3]_{Rxn(1)} - [NH_3]_{Rxn(4)})}{4} + \frac{[O_2]_{Rxn(5)}}{4}$$



436  
 437  
 438 **FIGURE 9:** TEMPERATURE AND O<sub>2</sub> AVAILABILITY AT THE  
 439 INLET OF THE SCR AND ASC AS A FUNCTION OF λ FOR THE L-  
 440 PILOT CASE WITH SOI OF 12°BTDC. NOTE THAT THE SCR  
 441 VALUES ARE SHOWN FOR REFERENCE, AND THE ASC-IN O<sub>2</sub> IS  
 442 APPROXIMATED USING REACTIONS (1), (4) AND (5).

443 This approach assumes that (a) the entirety of the available  
 444 NO at the SCR inlet participates in reaction (1); (b) reaction (4)  
 445 is the dominant N<sub>2</sub>O production pathway; and (c) the remainder  
 446 of the NH<sub>3</sub> difference is accounted for via reaction (5). The  
 447 exothermic nature of the SCR reactions results in T<sub>ASC-In</sub> > T<sub>SCR-  
 448 In</sub> across the tested λ conditions, as shown in Figure 9. The  
 449 temperature exceeds a value of 400°C for every λ case, which is  
 450 important for efficient ASC performance. However, the  
 451 difference in O<sub>2</sub> concentration as a function of λ will play a more  
 452 important role as the oxidation pathways rely on O<sub>2</sub> availability.

453  
 454 Following are the global reactions that may be relevant at  
 455 these inlet conditions [33]:

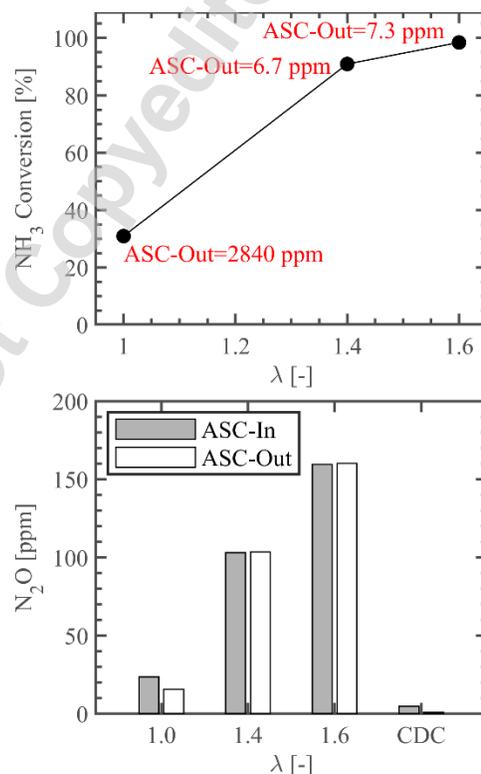


460  
 461 Reaction with N<sub>2</sub> in the products is the most  
 462 thermodynamically favorable; however, undesired NO and N<sub>2</sub>O  
 463 can also be produced depending on reaction conditions and  
 464 catalyst type.

### 3.4 ASC Performance

467 The ASC results shown in Figure 10 indicate high NH<sub>3</sub>  
 468 conversion at leaner conditions, but a mere 30% at a λ of 1.0,  
 469 resulting in 2,840 ppm of NH<sub>3</sub> at the ASC outlet. This is  
 470 unsurprising, given the low O<sub>2</sub> concentration at λ=1. The leaner  
 471 cases, on the other hand, result in less than 10 ppm of NH<sub>3</sub> at  
 472 the outlet of the ASC owing to both O<sub>2</sub> abundance and lower initial

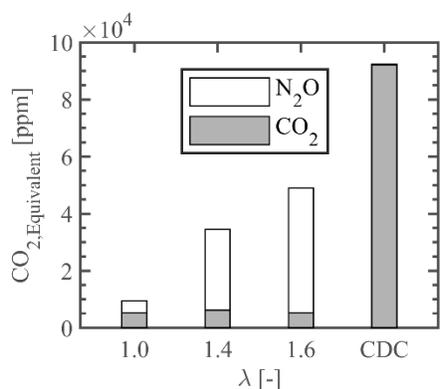
473 NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations (<500 ppm). Figure 10 (bottom) also appears  
 474 to show that reaction (8) is not a dominant pathway at the tested  
 475 conditions because the change in N<sub>2</sub>O across the ASC is  
 476 negligible. Similar conclusions can be drawn for reaction (7)  
 477 because the change in NO across the ASC was within the  
 478 measurement uncertainty of the instruments used for the  
 479 experiments (ASC-Out [NO] < 4 ppm). Under the conditions  
 480 tested here, the ASC exhibited high selectivity for NH<sub>3</sub> oxidation  
 481 to N<sub>2</sub>, rather than to NO or N<sub>2</sub>O.  
 482



483  
 484  
 485  
 486  
 487  
 488 **FIGURE 10:** ASC NH<sub>3</sub> CONVERSION (TOP) AND ASC-IN/ASC-  
 OUT N<sub>2</sub>O (BOTTOM) AS A FUNCTION OF λ FOR THE L-PILOT  
 CASE WITH SOI OF 12°BTDC. THE CDC ASC-IN/ASC-OUT N<sub>2</sub>O  
 RESULTS ARE SHOWN FOR REFERENCE IN THE BOTTOM  
 PLOT.

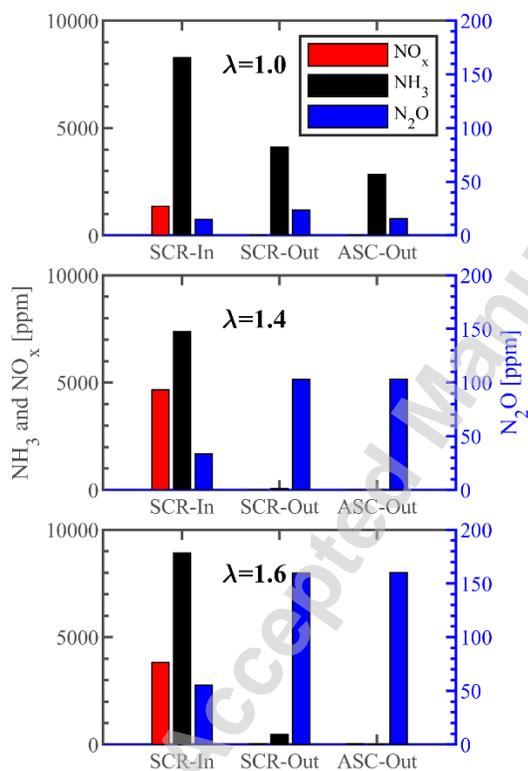
489 The aftertreatment performance for the L-pilot cases is  
 490 compared with that of the CDC baseline in terms of equivalent  
 491 CO<sub>2</sub> emissions. These are calculated by considering the CO<sub>2</sub>-  
 492 equivalent impact of N<sub>2</sub>O over a span of 100 years (273 × CO<sub>2</sub>  
 493 [8]), as shown in Figure 11. Despite the formation of N<sub>2</sub>O over  
 494 the SCR, CO<sub>2</sub>-equivalent emissions reductions are realized  
 495 relative to CDC at the tested conditions. An approximately 44%  
 496 reduction at a λ of 1.6 and an 88% reduction at a λ of 1.0 are  
 497 evident. However, the 88% reduction is accompanied by a  
 498 thermal efficiency penalty of ~3.5% (absolute) and high tailpipe  
 499 NH<sub>3</sub> emissions (2,840 ppm). A λ of 1.4, however, provides a 60%  
 500 reduction with similar thermal efficiency and less than 10 ppm  
 501 tailpipe NH<sub>3</sub> emissions. More importantly, it is worth noting that  
 502 these results were obtained under favorable exhaust temperature  
 503 conditions. Lower temperatures (at lower loads) may result in

504 NO slip over the SCR or a CO<sub>2</sub>-equivalent penalty relative to 523  
 505 CDC due to N<sub>2</sub>O selectivity. This is a part of the research scope 524  
 506 and will be explored in the upcoming experimental efforts. 525  
 507



508  
 509 **FIGURE 11:** ASC-OUT CO<sub>2</sub>-EQUIVALENT AS A FUNCTION OF  $\lambda$   
 510 FOR THE L-PILOT CASE WITH SOI OF 12°BTDC. THE CDC CO<sub>2</sub>-  
 511 EQUIVALENT RESULT IS SHOWN FOR REFERENCE.

512 Figure 12 provides a summary of the N-based emissions 543  
 514 trends that were observed as a function of  $\lambda$  in this study. 544  
 515



516  
 517 **FIGURE 12:** SUMMARY OF SCR-IN, SCR-OUT, AND ASC-OUT  
 518 N-BASED EMISSIONS AS A FUNCTION OF  $\lambda$  FOR THE L-PILOT  
 519 CASE WITH SOI OF 12°BTDC. 520

521  
 522 **4. CONCLUSION**

523 In this work, a medium-duty single-cylinder engine was  
 524 used to evaluate the performance of a Cu-SCR and ASC system  
 525 under dual-fuel diesel/NH<sub>3</sub> mode. The inlet conditions for the  
 526 aftertreatment system were generated using two injection  
 527 strategies, L-pilot and E-pilot, at engine speed and load of 1,200  
 528 rpm and 12.6 bar. The air flow commanded to the engine was  
 529 varied to change the global  $\lambda$  with an NH<sub>3</sub> energy fraction of  
 530 95%. The SCR and ASC performance were evaluated at steady-  
 531 state engine operation by sampling for N-based species using a  
 532 FTIR at three locations: SCR-In, SCR-Out (ASC-In), and ASC-  
 533 Out.

534  
 535 The following conclusions can be drawn from the results of  
 536 this study:

- 537 • Both the L-pilot and E-pilot strategies generated similar  
 538 temperatures, unburned NH<sub>3</sub>, and NO<sub>x</sub> emissions at the  
 539 inlet of the SCR.
- 540 • The SCR was effective in converting NO<sub>x</sub>, achieving  
 541 over 99% conversion under the conditions studied.
- 542 • A  $\lambda$  of 1.4 provided an ANR of approximately 1.5,  
 543 resulting in the lowest NH<sub>3</sub> slip over the SCR.
- 544 • NH<sub>3</sub> conversion over the ASC was the lowest at a  $\lambda$  of  
 545 1.0 despite an inlet temperature of 425°C due to limited  
 546 O<sub>2</sub> availability under stoichiometric conditions.
- 547 • A 60% reduction in CO<sub>2</sub>-equivalent relative to CDC  
 548 was possible at a  $\lambda$  of 1.4 with similar thermal efficiency  
 549 and less than 10 ppm tailpipe NH<sub>3</sub> emissions.

550  
 551  
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562  
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